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ABSTRACT

To add a foundation to the growing excitement among educators about the central role they play in helping learners become strategic readers, the articles in this thematic journal provide insight into current reading theory and practice. Richard Telfer's article reviews research on strategic reading and clarifies what is meant by the phrase "strategic reader." An essay by Scott Paris offers an array of reflections on the role strategic reading research plays in the life of the learner. These two works set the stage for several articles presenting strategies useful at all stages of reading instruction, including prereading and postreading. An article by Karen Hanus offers six "whole class" strategies to help students learn from their content areas. A brief article by David Gustafson and Joyce Pederson discusses the strategic learner and SQ3R (survey, question, read, recite, review). An article by Roslyn Nemke emphasizes the value of interpretive reading as an important part of the curriculum. Fred Duffelmeyer's essay, which suggests a balanced approach to basic sight word instruction, is followed by a presentation of William Fagen and Helen Hayden's research on emerging literacy in the home. Finally, Betty Jane Wagner's article investigates the integration of language arts instruction, emphasizing the importance of language immersion in all of the learner's classroom experiences. Overall, the volume provides insight for teachers as they help their students become strategic readers. Most articles include a reference list. (JD)

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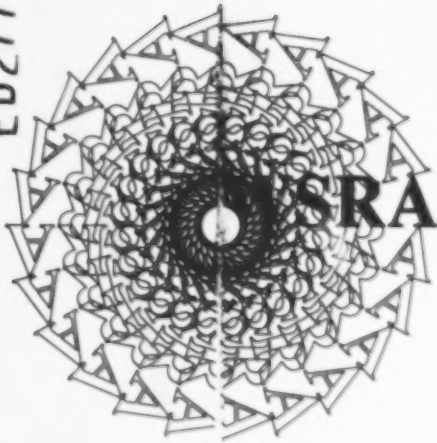

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Editor's Comments: A Prologue

James T. Devine
Journal Editor

The theme *Strategic Reader* could not have come at a better time. A new excitement exists today among educators about the central role they play in helping learners to become strategic readers. This volume adds a foundation to this exceitment by providing insight into current theory and practice.

We begin with a review of the research on strategic reading. WSRA's Dr. Richard Telfer, chairperson of the research committee, provides clarity to the phrase "strategic reader." As a follow-up to Dr. Telfer's discussion, an interview with Dr. Scott Paris of the University of Michigan challenges us. Scott has spent much of his professional career researching strategic reading and offers the educators of Wisconsin an array of reflections on the role strategic reading research plays in the life of the learner.

Dr. Telfer and Paris' words provide a window from which to view several strategies used for pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading instruction. An especially delightful article by Roslyn Nemke on the value of interpretive reading as an important part of the curriculum signals a turning point in this volume's focus. Iowa State's Fred Duffelmeyer then suggests a balanced approach to basic sight word instruction. This is followed by Fagen and Hayden's research on emerging literacy in the home.

Betty Jane Wagner's investigation into the integration of language arts instruction appropriately concludes this volume about strategic reading. She emphasizes the importance of language immersion in all of the learner's classroom experience.

Overall, this volume suggests a balance, an insight, a quest for all of us to reach out and help the young people of Wisconsin become strategic readers.

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Strategic Reading: A Brief Review

Dr. Richard Telfer
Professor of Reading Education
U. W. - Whitewater

Over the past few years, researchers have focused increasing attention on helping students become strategic readers. This attention has gone beyond simply teaching students ' comprehension skills and study skills. As Johnston (1985) put it, "Teachers need to be concerned about improving children's comprehension ability rather than just comprehension. This redirection focuses efforts on the development and teaching of strategic reading comprehension behaviors." In this endeavor, students are taught to actively control their own reading.

Strategic Reading

Strategic reading seems to involve several elements. Strategic readers, obviously, use strategies, "systematic, goal-directed behavior(s) that can be generalized beyond the immediate task." Strategic readers are flexible in their use of those reading skills and strategies. Menges (1981) describes this flexibility when he says, "From experience with a large number of problems, learners discover strategies that apply across the whole class of problems. Or they may develop strategies for dealing with the process of learning itself."

This type of flexibility is considered to be characteristic of experts. Strategic readers also act consciously and intentionally. As Paris, Lipson, & Wixson (1983) suggest, "Strategic actions are, in a simplified sense, skills that are made deliberate." In addition, strategic readers are aware of the reasons for reading, the characteristics of the text, and their relative success with reading.

By contrast, readers who are not strategic may not know about strategies, may not realize the need to stop periodically to check their own comprehension, and may not understand the benefits of strategy use. In short, these students may not have well developed metacognitive skills.

Studies of strategic reading have largely centered in three overlapping areas: (a) examining differences in strategic reading among different groups, (b) identifying characteristics of strategic readers, and (c) attempting to teach readers to read strategically. Many of the early studies identified the characteristics of the strategic readers. Later studies have tended to focus more on attempts to develop strategic readers.

Differences Between Strategic and Non-Strategic Readers

Studies that have examined strategic and non-strategic readers' use of strategies have indicated differences primarily in terms of age or success in reading. In general, older readers and more successful readers have been more strategic readers. These differences have been specifically manifested in a number of ways.

First, some researchers have indicated that younger or less successful readers are not aware of task demands. For example, Myers and Paris (1978) found that young children "were unaware of many important parameters of reading. They were not sensitive to task dimensions or the need to involve special strategies for different materials and goals." Bristow (1985) added to these findings when she indicated that good and poor readers have different views of reading.

Second, other authorities have indicated that younger or less successful readers lack metacognitive development. Otto (1985) commented that "Poor readers' metacognitive development tends to lag behind their cognitive development in reading. Even when they seem able to perform satisfactorily under a teacher's supervision, they seldom or never reread purposefully when meaning is unclear, they report little or no awareness of an occasional lack of understanding, they do not realize the need for exact understanding when reading directions, and they seem unable to use reading as a versatile tool for learning and pleasure."

Third, many researchers have shown that strategic and non-strategic readers differ in how they understand what they read. Spring (1985) found that college freshman, good and poor readers, differed in the types of strategies that they used; good readers used comprehension strategies associated with understanding what they read, while poor readers more often used study strategies. Spring suggested that poor readers "May rely heavily on study strategies without first having completely understood the text material to be studied." Winograd (1984), who looked at how good and poor eighth grade readers approached summarizing texts, concluded that while most poor readers know the demands of the summarization task, some of the poor readers had difficulty identifying information that adults consider to be important.

Fourth, inappropriate placement in materials may be a factor that distinguishes good from poor readers. Poor readers are more often placed in material that is inappropriate for them. This misplacement detracts from strategic reading performance.

Fifth, several authors have also suggested that poor readers tend to exhibit learned helplessness. The learned helplessness is manifested in lower expectations of success and easily shaken confidence. Readers become very passive.

Sixth, researchers have described strategic and non-strategic readers as differing in their control of the learning situation. Simpson (1984) indicated that college sophomores who were poor

readers "had a restricted range of strategies for learning from text and an even more naive concept of how to plan tasks or evaluate accomplishments." Menges suggested that "One difference between effective and ineffective learners is that effective learners generate their own strategies for coding, retrieving, and manipulating knowledge; they are in control of their learning process."

Effective Strategic Readers

In addition to learning more about strategic reading through the comparison of successful and less successful readers, researchers have looked closely at the reading behavior of older and more skilled readers in order to identify characteristics of effective strategic readers. Smith (1982, 1985) identified several characteristics. First, "mature readers change tactics easily, quickly recognizing when one idea isn't working and coming up with another to try instead." Second, effective readers seem to feel ownership of a task. They feel that they are in control. Third, skilled readers use non-reading strategies such as taking breaks and they report having experienced dramatic breakthroughs following those breaks. Fourth, skilled readers feel a desire to talk to a knowledgeable other person to help with monitoring. By talking with this other individual they test their comprehension.

Anderson (1980) also studied skilled readers. He identified study strategies that were naturally used by these skilled readers. These strategies were contrasted with those recommended by experts: "The qualitative difference is great between strategies that students report using and those that the 'experts' advocate using." In addition to highlighting the importance of knowing the actual as opposed to the recommended use of strategies, Anderson gave the possible explanations that the use of the strategies is situational, and that strategies have a cost in time and effort.

Teaching Students to Be Effective Strategic Readers

While many studies have focused on identifying characteristics of good and poor readers, a number of the more recent studies examined ways of teaching students to be more strategic readers. These studies focused on several related variables.

First, many stressed the importance of increasing student awareness of strategies. Paris, Cross, and Lipson (1984) used an approach called *Informed Strategies for Learning*, which stressed children's awareness and use of effective reading strategies. They argued that direct instruction and increased awareness lead to better strategy use. Armbruster and Anderson (1981) proposed teaching about four variables affecting the act of studying: (a) the study task, (b) materials, (c) the student's characteristics, and (d) strategies.

Second, other studies have focused on ways of increasing

student involvement. Jenkins, Heliotis, Haynes, and Beck (1986) found superior performance of a task that required active student response (restatements as opposed to individual and group questioning). Miller (1985) found general self-instruction training to facilitate monitoring activity. She found self-verbalization to be especially important. Smith and Dauer (1984) and Haggard (1985) suggested the use of marginal coding as a way of increasing active monitoring. In addition, many attempts to increase involvement have focused on questioning. For example, Dreher and Gambrell (1985) suggested teaching children to use a self-questioning strategy.

Third, studies have stressed the importance of providing structure. Holmes (1985) found the combination of a structured inferencing strategy and sequentially ordered materials to be most effective with disabled readers.

Fourth, studies have shown the modeling of strategic reading behaviors to be important. Palincsar and Brown (1985) presented a technique of reciprocal teaching, where the teacher and the students alternate roles. Heller (1986) and Thurmond (1986) also recommended ways of modeling strategic reading.

Fifth, authorities have highlighted the importance of practice. Taylor, et al. found practice to be more effective with poor readers than a particular phrase reading strategy. Dreher and Gambrell found practice to be an essential element in having students write their own main idea questions. Simpson stressed the importance of application practice with the students' own texts.

Questions About the Teaching of Strategic Reading

While researchers and teacher educators have provided many suggestions for helping students become strategic readers, several questions have not been resolved. The first is a logical one. Is it effective to teach strategic reading, or must it be learned? The studies mentioned above seem to indicate that strategic reading can be taught.

Unquestionably the strategies can be taught, but is that enough? Strategic reading involves more than just strategy use. For example, Spring(1985) suggested that the interaction of a number of factors is critical. In addition to teaching students to use strategies, students' general knowledge and background may need to be improved. Then, the question becomes whether strategic readers and non-strategic readers are similar enough to determine that what the former do naturally and spontaneously can and should be taught to the latter. The two groups may not be sufficiently similar. Young readers may be unable to control their reading enough to read strategically. Less skilled readers may be too preoccupied with the act ot reading to be strategic. If the groups are not sufficiently similar, many of the studies purporting to improve strategic reading may be, instead, promoting the learning of isolated strategies. While

the strategies work under teacher direction, they do not provide for the necessary student control.

Second, what is the importance of the total reading situation, particularly the effect of the difficulty of the material? Erickson, Stahl, and Rinehart (1985) found that poor readers did monitor their comprehension when given appropriate reading material, but did not monitor when given difficult material. Smith (1985) found that skilled readers got only limited benefit from strategies when faced with very difficult, unfamiliar material. These readers were able to summarize passages, but they did not understand the text.

Third, what are the costs of strategic reading? Since strategic reading requires more time and effort than simply reading, what are the trade-offs? Particularly for non-strategic readers, when and how do the benefits outweigh the costs?

As can be seen in this brief review, much is known about strategic reading and strategic readers. More information is being generated, and possible teaching approaches are being identified. The development of strategic readers has the potential to be a very fruitful avenue for research and practice.

Telfer is WSRA's research committee chairperson.

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Interview: Unlocking the Mysteries, or toward 2001

Dr. Scott G. Paris

Dr. Scott Paris leads the way in the major research developments over the past four years on strategic reading. His research findings have appeared in *Contemporary Educational Psychology, Child Development*, and *Journal of Educational Psychology*, to name a few. His research findings suggest that strategies play a significant role in reading comprehension. The Wisconsin State Reading Association is fortunate to have Dr. Scott Paris add insights to the Fall Journal's theme: The Strategic Reader.

The editor conducted the interview.

What is the most recent research suggesting to teachers of beginning readers?

Recent research has made two important contributions to the instruction of reading and writing for beginning readers. First, we know that the old notions of readiness are probably incorrect. Children are ready to read, or at least engage in literacy, as soon as they can talk. Research studies have shown that joint book reading between parents and children provides a foundation for listening and print awareness.

The rich social interaction between parent and child provides an understanding about text as well as satisfying social experiences revolving around oral language, print, and enjoyable stories. When parents share literacy with their children, it provides an unshakable foundation for children's early appreciation of the interest and value of text. By four or five years of age, most preschoolers are able to identify letters, sounds, words and to produce a combination of writing, scribbles and drawing that communicates a message.

These early accomplishments indicate cognitive and social awareness about literacy activities and the nature and convention of print. It helps children to provide these experiences before formal schooling and to begin reading and writing activities according to the child's interest and abilities.

The second primary finding from research on beginning reading has shown that early reading instruction does not have to focus on decoding and phonics alone. Language experience and whole-language approaches that focus on the social and

communicative aspects of reading and writing have had dramatic effects on young children's educational progress.

Research by Don Graves and Jane Hanson, for example, has shown that early writing experiences increase children's understanding of authorship and promote children's early literacy skills by combining reading and writing in meaningful activities. Comprehension and production of meaningful and personally significant text is as much a key to beginning reading as unlocking the mysteries of letter-sound combinations.

How then, do the research suggestions for teachers in the intermediate grades differ and yet complement the suggestions for teachers of beginning readers?

Research on reading and writing of older children also emphasizes the value of comprehension activities for children's development and appreciation of literacy. Instead of workbook exercises that provide skill and drill practice, there is growing emphasis on promoting children's understanding of the value of strategic reading. This involves awareness about strategies that facilitate understanding as well as practice in using these skills on meaningful text.

Durkin's research that illustrated the paucity of comprehension instruction provided in teachers' lessons or basal materials revealed a glaring weakness in reading instruction for the intermediate grades. Silent sustained reading and workbook exercises are simply not sufficient activities to teach all children about the richness of printed language and the strategies that can be used for composing and comprehending text.

Although the strategies are more sophisticated and are applied to more complex reading materials, the basic emphasis from beginnning to intermediate reading focuses on (a) understanding the constructive and strategic aspects of reading, (b) engaging in meaningful and personally relevant tasks of reading and writing, and (c) working cooperatively with teachers and peers to construct and comprehend text so that the thinking strategies modeled by others can be incorporated into self-regulated and independent learning.

Do the suggestions of researchers have an essential place in the upper grades?

Research in the upper grades has focused on more complicated skills such as understanding the structure of text, composing essays and narratives, and using effective study skills. These aspects of reading and writing are developmental extensions of the skills and strategies that research has emphasized at earlier ages. In particular, current research is investigating how comprehension of

content area reading can be promoted by making secondary students more analytic and reflective readers.

The developmental sequence of understanding and strategy use that I have mentioned in these three questions reflects advances in research on cognitive development that has shown how children become better able to control their own thinking and reasoning from four to sixteen years of age. The acquisition of skilled reading and writing during this time period mirrors these cognitive developmental accomplishments. Indeed, research on topics such as math, science, and problem solving has shown that some of the same fundamental aspects of planful, thoughtful, self-regulated learning are important in all of these domains.

If you had the opportunity to teach young children each day for a year, what ideas about teaching would you engage your students with daily?

If I taught a classroom of students on a regular basis, I would try to instill in them some fundamental ideas about learning everyday. First, I would tell my students that I am proud of who they are and what they know, but that I expect them to learn much more everday. I believe that it is important for students to realize that teachers respect them, yet hold high expectations for their development.

Second, I would share with my students the reasons for learning particular information and the goals that I am trying to accomplish. I believe that it is important that teachers and students develop a cooperative attitude so that they are aware of the same objectives and try to reach them together.

Third, each day I would tell my students as much as I could about thinking, learning, and development so they understand the process of education and schooling that occupies so much of their lives. Children are curious to know how the mind works and how people develop. Explaining these phenomena to children is not easy, but it helps make the activities of the classroom more understandable.

Do you feel there is more to building positive motivation and attitudes among readers than just developing rapport?

Yes, I believe that motivating students involves more than developing rapport with them. Friendship is not nearly as important as mutual respect for encouraging and motivating students to learn. Two concepts—enablement and empowerment—capture what I feel is important about motivation.

As children learn new skills and strategies for solving the problems we give them in the classroom, they become enabled to achieve and to excel. They can learn independently and gain

rewards for their accomplishments as they acquire these skills. The skills that enable their achievement provide a sense of empowerment, because students feel a growing sense of competence and confidence in themselves. Researchers have referred to this as self-efficacy, and it is an important component of self-esteem.

I believe that students develop the motivation to persist in the face of frustration when they feel that they are capable of overcoming difficulties. They develop positive attitudes and high expectations if people around them communicate an honest and positive set of expectations for their performance. Students who feel enabled and empowered do not feel threatened or anxious in the classroom. They take risks and seek challenges so they can learn even more.

On the topic of research and its practical application, do you feel there's more useful information today about what constitutes effective teaching than ever before?

There is undoubtedly more information on effective teaching today than there ever has been. Research during the past ten years has been particularly productive in the area of teaching and learning. There is even a growing field called "instructional psychology" that combines research in cognitive, developmental, and educational psychology into principles of effective instruction.

I think we are beginning to understand the personal dilemmas and frustrations of teachers as well as the strength and power of effective instruction. Research has analyzed ways in which students and teachers interact in the classroom to determine effective styles of teaching and the particular qualities of the students and teachers that contribute to effective interaction. Researchers at the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University, for example, have made great strides in describing the dynamics of classroom teaching. This body of research is being translated into preservice and inservice programs of education for teachers that is valuable immediately.

Would this be true about effective learning, also?

Yes, I would agree that we have better research today on learning than ever before. Historically, research on learning followed paradigms from experimental psychology. We stopped using animal research as our model of learning a long time ago, but we are still moving away from research on esoteric or non-meaningful tasks.

During the past ten years, researchers have investigated academic learning in classroom settings, and I believe we have made great strides in our knowledge about children's learning as a consequence.

The rise of information processing theories have given us new technology and information about thinking, and the cadre of researchers interested in academic learning has improved dramatically in numbers and quality. My guess is that some of the great advances in applied psychology during the next 20 years will be made in our understanding of effective teaching, learning, instructional technology, and student motivation.

If we believe that reading and writing are fundamental abilities young people should possess, have we as educators done all we can to bring reading and writing together into successful classroom lessons?

No, I think educators have been unsuccessful in designing curricula that teach students the similarities between reading and writing. Some language arts programs and whole-language instruction for beginning readers have combined oral language, listening, reading, and writing in creative ways; but these seem to fail apart in subsequent grades. Reading and writing become divorced as the curriculum becomes compartmentalized. By the time students reach secondary school, they receive little specific instruction on reading and writing but instead use these as tools of application for learning in other subjects. Students who do not read or write very well by that time have little hope of gaining the skills that they have not developed.

There are two ways to solve this problem. First, reading and writing can be combined in every subject area so that whether students are learning mathematics, biology, or social studies, they also receive instruction about effective strategies for reading and writing about the content areas.

The second possibility is to teach in a separate curriculum thinking strategies, problem-solving skills, or critical thinking skills, as they have been called, that also focus on reading and writing. The issue is not really which approach is better, because many students receive neither. The issue is how to provide the instruction in a comprehensible and economical manner to students so that they have ample opportunties to develop reading and writing skills throughout grades K-12.

Some recent reports on public education in America conclude that the institution of public education in America is in need of a major overhaul. How would you assess the needs of public education in America?

During the past several years, we have seen numerous reports decrying and indicting the state of education in America. Every level of education from preschool programs to post-secondary colleges and universities has been reviewed and criticized. Obviously, there

is a great deal of discontent with American education.

But I believe that one of the strengths of American education is the constant evaluation by the public and researchers, and an enduring dissatisfaction with the quality of instruction and materials available. As opposed to education in many countries around the world, American education is constantly scrutinized to revise and improve curricula and instructional approaches. I believe that such self-examination and revision inevitably leads to improvement and avoids stagnation. Yet, there are always areas in which progress is slower than we would like to see and trade-offs are made among recommendations.

I think it is a mistake to jump on the bandwagon of educational criticism. This has become a political fashion that has created divisive debate. Only in some instances have we used the national reviews to initiate effective reforms in the curriculum or teacher education. I think researchers and professional education organizations can combine their energies to focus on substantive issues that can be addressed concretely. For example, I think we can increase the effectiveness of the following issues in public education in America:

- We can provide students with better educational materials that are based on sound research rather than marketing techniques.

- We can improve professional development of preservice and inservice education. (The Holmes Group has provided many good suggestions.)

- We can restructure how teachers spend their time so that they engage students more often in meaningful instruction rather than administrative management and student counselling.

- We can design more effective programs of educational assessment so that the tests are useful for students, parents, and educators.

I realize that these problems are not small and will not be readily solved. Yet, they each focus on the dynamics of classroom interactions between teachers and students. I find these problems to be more easily addressed than far-reaching social issues such as teacher salaries, length of the school year, and teacher qualifications.

The term metacognition is a buzz word today among educators aware of some of the research being done at our major research institutions. How significant is the concept of metacognition to the classroom teachers who will be teaching in the year 2000?

Metacognition became a popular term about ten years ago and routinely elicits raised eyebrows or groans when introduced to parents and teachers. The terminology may sound awkward, but this focus on understanding our own mental processes is an extremely important topic that will have far-reaching implications for teaching and learning.

During the past ten years, the benefit of metacognition has been to direct researchers to addresss different types of questions involving learning and cognitive development. Researchers have asked, "How do children become planful, thoughtful, and strategic? How do they learn more about their own cognitive systems? How do they manage their cognitive and social behavior? How do children learn from others the kinds of standards to internalize when they monitor their own behavior? And, how does self-awareness or reflection get translated into action?"

The basic issue is to understand how children appreciate the way their minds work and how they use this knowledge to enhance their own academic learning. Research studies have identified a wide variety of cognitive and instructional principles that depend on metacognition. These will be incorporated into theories of learning and development in the future and will become part of the knowledge that teachers acquire.

The more we understand about metacognition, the more we understand the ways students learn. So, I think it is a very important term for both researchers and educators. The terminology may change during the next 20 years, but the focus on how people understand and monitor their own mental processes will be an important issue for years to come.

Dr. Paris was a keynote speaker at the WSRA Fall Conference in Green Bay, Wisconsin.

PUBLICATION POLICY

The Wisconsin State Reading Association Journal seeks articles that are aimed at improving the quality of reading instruction. Each issue centers on a theme; however, articles not related to the theme but of interest to reading professionals are encouraged. Themes for Volume 31 are as follows:

Volume 31, Number 1	Theme: The Strategic Reader
Volume 31, Number 2	Theme: Helping Students Remember: Effective Approaches to Comprehension Instruction
Volume 31, Number 3	Theme: Reading and Writing Across the Curriculum
Volume 31, Number 4	Theme: Reading for All Ages: Perspectives on Emergent Reading and Adult Literacy

The WSRA Journal accepts articles from WSRA members, from Wisconsin educators, and from other reading and language arts specialists in other states. Authors submitting manuscripts are requested to:

1. choose topics of interest to our readers – reading specialists, classroom teachers, and other educators interested in reading theory and practice.
2. submit articles not previously published for an anonymous peer review.
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Madison, Wisconsin 53711

Six "Whole Class" Strategies to Help Students Learn from Their Content Areas

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Waterloo West High
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As students enter and progress through the middle and secondary school, they face the increasingly more difficult task of bringing special reading skills to content area subjects.

The reading skills learned in elementary grades offer no guarantee of successful skill application in history, science, or any other field. In the upper grades, students must use the fundamental vocabulary and reading comprehension abilities already learned and apply them to increasingly more difficult materials. In addition, students must (1) learn the specialized vocabulary of content areas, (2) find definitions of these specialized words in their text, and (3) be able to select and learn new words and meanings on their own in order to become independent learners.

Most students do not automatically acquire new concepts and the ability to identify words that represent new concepts on their own. Therefore, attention must be paid to the special vocabulary and reading skills required in subject matter areas, or students will fail to achieve as they should. Failure to teach specialized reading could lead to frustration, and decreased student motivation and achievement.

Students learn in a variety of ways; therefore, successful vocabulary instruction calls for a repertoire of activities including: personal experiences with the word, categorizing words, oral and silent reading of material containing the words, and direct vocabulary practice. Content area teachers need to teach (1) the specialized vocabulary of their subject area, (2) techniques to learn new vocabulary, and (3) the special features of the textbook such as the glossary, italicized words, and index. The following six strategies are intended for busy, content area teachers. These strategies will provide practical activities to use with the whole class to improve students' content area vocabulary and reading skills.

1. Survey texts

Students need to become familiar with their textbooks. Early in the year ask students questions aimed at helping them remember how the index, glossary, typographical formats and other salient

features of the textbook can help them learn. Regularly review with students the major features of the texts as new chapters or units are begun. Give students practice in identifying and locating specialized vocabulary words in the text and in the glossary.

A modification of Aukerman's (1972) Survey Technique is one method to help students efficiently preview their textbook for important vocabulary prior to reading a unit or chapter.

First, have students survey the unit and identify vocabulary words that are written in italics or bold face. Second, have students try to locate the definitions of the words from context in the text. Some texts define a specialized vocabulary immediately preceding the italicized word, others provide definitions in the margin, or include a separate section on vocabulary. Have students go back through the text locating additional important vocabulary words and explain how the words were identified. Point out any additional vocabulary words, and clues to locating them in the chapter.

Third, let students examine the visuals and predict from the pictures and graphs, what information the chapter will include about the vocabulary terms that have been located. Fourth, determine the purpose and value of specialized vocabulary. Point out that the specialized vocabulary generally contains the major concepts of the unit or chapter.

Fifth, from the information already generated in the survey of vocabulary, conduct a class discussion of the important points of the chapter. Next, help students group the vocabulary terms into logical categories. Some specific categorization procedures will be explained later in this article. Finally, as a whole class group, generate a phrase or sentence that explains what the author was trying to say about the subject.

2. Semantic webbing

Also called mapping, is a popular content area reading strategy to help students learn vocabulary and relationships between concepts. Whole class mapping requires students to interpret pre-existing knowledge and experience while helping them recall and retain text information. In addition, maps help students extend vocabulary comprehension and expand students' intuitive notions about similarities and differences among concepts.

A web or map is a graphic arrangement showing the major ideas and relationships among word meanings. First, all the important vocabulary of the unit needs to be identified by the teacher or the students. Then, a large circle is drawn in the center of the chalkboard or transparencey. Students can then discuss and determine the vocabulary word main idea in the passage or unit. This vocabulary word is then written in the center circle. Second, draw lines outward from the center, attaching circles to the end of each of these spokes. Third, have students locate related, subordinate vocabulary words to fill in the circle. Continue this strategy until all ideas, space or time is exhausted.

The final display will be in the shape of a spider web. It does not follow any rigid conventions and is formed as concepts are discussed. Arrows, shaded lines, squares or rectangles can be used to illustrate special relationships with the terms (e.g., cause and effect, comparison) in the text. If webs are written on transparencies and stored, they can be used to help students who have been absent from class discussion and for reviewing at then end of a unit. Reviewing with the web will help students prepare for tests by providing a visual representation of the important vocabulary and concepts.

3. The structured overview

The structured overview is one pre-reading vocabulary activity that can help students learn content area vocabulary. It involves teaching new content area words before the students are asked to read them in their textbook.

To prepare a structured overview, first, locate all of the important vocabulary from a unit and prepare them in chart form as a teacher's guide for the lesson. Second, write each word on a separate sheet of paper asking students questions about each word as it is written. Ask questions so that the words are defined individually and in relation to other words. Third, after all of the words have been written onto the sheets, encourage students to help construct a wall chart by arranging the vocabulary sheets to show the relationships of the words to each other. The chart of relationships can be left taped to the wall, or can be thumbtacked to a bulletin board as graphic representation of the important concepts of the unit. The chart can also be typed and copied for just disabled readers and mainstreamed students or for each student as a study or test aid. The advantage of this strategy is that students are provided an overview of what they are going to study and their active participation in building the overview will generate interest and tap their prior knowledge (schema) of the subject.

4. Capsule vocabulary

The capsule vocabulary is a strategy in which students, read, write, speak and write important vocabulary words from their content area.

First, the teacher selects twelve to fifteen specialized vocabulary words from the passage or unit. These words are typed on a list, and copied so that each student will have a vocabulary list. Students are given the list and instructed to write down any notes or definitions that they need on their copy.

Second, these words are presented one at a time to the students. As each word is presented, students discuss any definitions or associations they have with the word. Students provide examples and try to relate the word to previously discussed terms.

Third, the teacher adds information about the word and uses

the word in spoken context, modeling vocabulary usage for the students. This helps students infer meanings associated with the word. Continue this process until all the words have been introduced.

Fourth, students are paired and given a limited time, three to five minutes to use the words in conversation about the topic in which the words are related. Using a timer helps students stay on task. Students can take turns recording the number of words that are meaningfully used in conversation.

Fifth, a brief discussion about the uses of the vocabulary can ensue, or students can be instructed to immediately write a short paragraph using as many capsule words as possible in five to ten minutes. Again, the use of the timer helps students summarize, and keeps the vocabulary lesson within available time constraints for the content teacher.

Finally, the teacher selects two or three paragraphs to read aloud to the class. Capsule vocabulary uses both the receptive and expressive modes to teach new vocabulary and the relationships between these vocabulary words. In addition, the word lists provide excellent student references and review, and involve students actively in the learning process.

5. List, group and label

This is a classic strategy from Taba (1967) in which students categorize vocabulary words for a specific topic. Students can first orally read a passage or unit using an Oral Languaging Strategy or discuss a silently read passage using a Questioning Strategy.

Second, students brainstorm a list of vocabulary words related to the topic areas. The brainstorming can be specific to a particular passage or unit or can be used for a general overview of a topic. This brainstorming is usually done with a whole class, but can also be conducted in small groups. Disabled readers and mainstreamed students can be successful if the teacher calls upon them first to suggest some of the words for the brainstormed list. As the vocabulary words are generated, the teacher or student writes the terms on the chalkboard, transparency, or a large sheet of paper.

Third, after twenty-five or thirty words are generated, the students are instructed to list the words in groups of four to six words that they think go together in some way. Students can be timed. Three to five minutes should work. After students have formed their vocabulary word groups, instruct them that they have several minutes to devise a label or name for each group.

Fourth, the teacher leads the students in sharing their groups and labels, writing some of them on the chalkboard as examples of vocabulary categories. Students are encouraged to explain why they grouped and labeled the words as they did.

A variety of responses need to be encouraged and regrouping explored. The advantage of this strategy is that students will come up with many of the important words associated with a particular

topic and will expand their associations for terminology. This can also be a good prereading diagnostic activity. Important vocabulary words about the topic that were not generated by brainstorming are probably not well known. These identified words can then be directly taught to the students.

6. Words on the wall

Visual representations of vocabulary are very helpful for students, but it is time consuming to use transparencies or write words on the chalkboard everyday. Words on the wall provide a visual representation of important vocabulary terms. Words on the wall visually reinforces the key vocabulary terms, and allows the teacher to point out the terms as the vocabulary surfaces in discussion or lecture.

First, the teacher previews the chapter or unit and identifies the important vocabulary terms. Second each term is written on a half sheet of construction paper. A picture, synonym, sentence, or some other aid to memory is included on the card.

Third, before the term is discussed or included in the assigned reading material, the term is presented to the class. Terms are defined specifically to the topic, in relation to other words on the wall and in context. The half-sheet with the term and any added information is then taped to the wall.

Fourth, when the unit is concluded, label the list by the chapter name, unit heading or topic, and start with a new list. Students have a constant reminder of the term, and can use the wall list as a reference in writing assignments and in taking tests.

Fifth, as new terms are added, update and expand the vocabulary on the wall. This provides an excellent specific content area vocabulary dictionary for your specific class syllabus.

These six "whole class" strategies will not provide all the vocabulary instruction needed in a content area. They are intended as a practical starting point for busy classroom teachers in meeting the needs of teaching specialized vocabulary of a content area to an entire class.

Many other practical ideas to teach content vocabulary are included in the references following this article, and adaptations can be made for group or individualized work on vocabulary. These strategies all involve the students actively in the learning process, and focus on the essential terms and concepts in the content area. The goal is for students to use these strategies independently, so that they will be effective learners on their own.

Karen is a learning disabilities teacher and doctoral student at the University of Northern Iowa.

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Children have more need of models than of critics.

Joseph Joubert

CALL FOR MANUSCRIPTS

The Wisconsin State Reading Association Journal is seeking articles that are aimed at improving the quality of reading instruction. Each issue centers on a theme; however, articles not related to the theme, but deserving publication are encouraged. Each theme selected allows for many approaches and kinds of articles. The WSRA Journal especially encourages the submission of descriptions of research, poetry, and practical papers, etc.

Themes and deadlines for 1986-1987 are:

Volume 31, Number 3	Theme: Reading and Writing Across the Curriculum Deadline: February 1, 1987
Volume 31, Number 4	Theme: Reading for All Ages: Perspectives on Emergent Reading and Adult Literacy Deadline: May 1, 1987

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Refer to page 16 for publication guidelines.

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SQ3R and the Strategic Reader

David J. Gustafson Ph.D.
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St. Thomas College, Minnesota

Robinson's (1961) SQ3R is probably the most well known and written about study technique in America. It is promoted in almost every reading text that deals with learning from expository material.

What is SQ3R? It is a five-step study strategy. Step 1–**Survey** (student skims the material); Step 2–**Question** (student turns headings into questions); Step 3–**Read** (student reads to find answers to questions posed); Step 4–**Recite** (student recites answers or writes them down); and Step 5–**Review** (student checks his retention of the main ideas).

After examining more than thirty years (1953-84) of research involving SQ3R, a summary of the research suggests that the SQ3R study technique is in dire need of birth control measures. SQ3R has spawned countless clones for no apparent reason. When analyzing the array of acrimonious acronym-labeled approaches depicting study techniques similar to SQ3R, the conclusion drawn is that research studies on SQ3R involve *modified* SQ3R techniques that fail to provide any rationale for the modifications to Robinson's original technique.

The only valid conclusion to the examination of 27 different studies on SQ3R would be that SQ3R is no more effective than other popular study techniques. This conclusion, however, fails to compliment the ample evidence that the SQ3R steps are based on sound learning theory. Further examination of the various studies clearly shows that, though SQ3R has been studied, the studies have fallen short of clearly demonstrating that SQ3R is no more effective than other techniques touted today. The reason these studies have fallen short is due to the nature of the research related to SQ3R.

The greatest defect in the research methods used has been the length of the studies. Most of these research efforts were doctoral dissertations and were *quick and dirty* – 5 to 7 week studies were common. What these studies more often gleaned is that students' usual study procedures were extinguished before the SQ3R technique had a chance to be internalized and, as a result, students performed worse than the control groups in several studies. The

research applications, therefore, of SQ3R as an effective study technique, need to be improved. Better training of the researchers in the intricacies of the steps, especially the *QUESTION* step, may result in more definitive research on the merits of the SQ3R technique.

Validation for this criticism of past studies originates with an examination of Anderson's (1980) stages of his theoretcial model of effective study– *Prereading, During Reading, and Post Reading.* Anderson provides a clear and comparable model to the SQ3R's procedures.

Prereading/SQ3R steps 1 & 2 (Survey and Question)

The student skims or surveys the text, noting or generalizing questions that will be answered in the second stage (Butler, 1983, p.3).

During Reading/SQ3R steps 3 & 4 (Read and Recite)

The students metacognitively monitor their understanding while reading. That is, they ask questions and take appropriate action if they are not understanding e.g., rereading, or checking the dictionary (Butler, 1983, p.3).

Post Reading/ SQ3R step 5 (Review)

The students employ strategies to cement and improve learning; knowing the purpose for which the particular text is being studied, they relate the new information to older, existent knowledge and ideas already within themselves and review the text and their notes (Butler, 1983, p. 3).

In conclusion, though there is not definitive evidence that SQ3R is effective, it is based on sound learning principles and fits well within Anderson's (1980) stages in studying. An important point is that the strategy must be effectively taught before students will use it in times of stress, i.e., preparing for tests. Even then, the SQ3R technique will be adapted (not adopted) by many students since thinking processes vary from individual to individual. Teachers *must*, however, teach students some approach so that the students have *something* to adapt later.

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ALL BABIES ARE BORN EQUAL

As a community service project to communicate with the public about reading, the Albany, New York, City Area Reading Council, has written a booklet being distributed to all new mothers at the Albany Medical Center Hospital. The booklet is included as part of a Patient Information Kit that nurses give to each new mother before she leaves the hospital.

The first page of the 8 page booklet states, "All Babies Are Born Equal....". Page 2 continues, "Not one can speak, count, read or write at birth." The message, that is easy to read, provides understanding to parents at all education levels. The booklet continues by explaining that those babies and preschoolers who are *not* read to at home will no longer be equal to their peers as they start school.

The booklets are available to local councils at 30 cents each (minimum order 1000). It is suggested that local philanthropic funds or businesses share in the underwriting with the local council. There is space on the back of the booklet to acknowledge sponsors.

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Summarizing Helps the Reading/Writing Connection

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One way to make the reading and writing connection very clear to middle school students is to teach them how to summarize. Summarizing is one of the critical thinking skills which advances metacognition, and it can be taught in a variety of courses so as to encourage transfer (Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, Campione, 1982). Social studies and science courses seem like natural settings for teaching summarizing because of the availability of supplementary material to complement the main concepts being taught in the textbooks. Also, teaching this writing/reading technique first in these content classes makes the students aware of the need to write in classes other than English.

This article will show how to implement a summarizing unit in an eighth grade social studies class, but the same procedure could be followed in any content area class. Teaching summarizing will demonstrate to teacher and student alike that composing and comprehending are two sides of the same basic process (Squire, 1983).

Preliminaries

Find an article from one to three pages in length that supports a unit concept. For example, the material used for this unit was on American Christmas customs because the class was studying colonial America. Make enough copies of the article so each student gets one. Then make at least two transparencies of the article for use on the overhead. Ask students to bring two colored pens or pencils to class. Then give the following procedure a "dry run" to experience the process as students will.

DAY ONE

Since this is the first time your class is using this procedure, give the students a purpose setting question before you read the article aloud for them. A good purpose setting question for an article on Christmas customs is "How did our current Christmas customs come about?" You will also need to spend some time clarifying

briefly what summarizing means. Tell the students that as you read they should be listening for the main ideas or the ideas the author wants to stress.

After the oral reading is finished, give the students a modified version of a summarizing technique based on Brown and Day's (1983) work:

1) Cross out all details, including repeated ideas, with one colored pencil.

2) Highlight or underline all the remaining ideas with the other colored pencil. These ideas should end up being the main ideas.

3) Put category labels in the margins and bracket any paragraphs which discuss the same ideas.

4) Find a topic sentence of the article (which should be underlined) or, if there is none, write one.

Put a transparency of the article on the overhead and, as a class, begin rereading each paragraph. Decide which ideas are details and should get crossed out and which ideas are main ideas and should be highlighted or underlined. It is important to stress here that not all summaries have to be exactly the same. While the students may agree or disagree on some points, in the end the gist of the article will remain constant. As the students use this technique again in small groups or in partnerships they will discover that they may disagree on certain details' importance.

As your students analyze the article, you will discover that they enjoy the physical act of crossing out unnecessary material. They will begin to discover that the text has a certain life all its own. The difference in writing styles will become obvious as they discover that perhaps not every paragraph has a topic sentence, and that not every topic sentence has to be at the beginning of the paragraph.

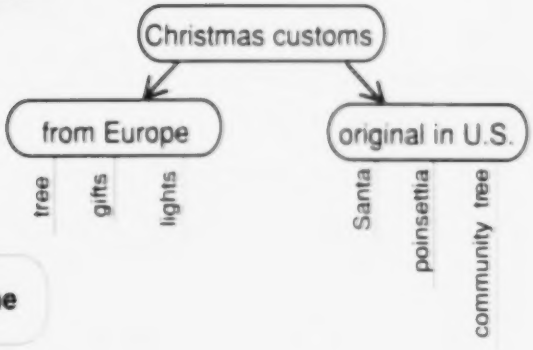
Once the words and phrases are all crossed out or highlighted, the class should then put category labels in the margins and bracket all paragraphs which discuss the same ideas. The hardest part for students will be finding a sentence that is the central idea for the whole article. The sentence may already be underlined. But if the students are having difficulty, have them rephrase the purpose setting question into a statement of fact and look for a similar sentence in the article. If the students are still having difficulty, write a central idea statement as a group.

DAY TWO

If there is time on Day One, the class can begin constructing a simple idea map or a simple phrase outline. However, this activity usually begins on Day Two. A simple idea map or phrase outline could look like this:

FIGURE 1

Idea Map



Phrase Outline

Topic: Christmas Customs

I. Those borrowed from Euope
   A. Tree
   B. Gift Giving
   C. Tree decorations

II. Those created in America
   A. Community Tree
   B. Poinsettia
   C. Santa Claus

Then the idea map or the phrase outline needs to be turned into a sentence outline. The sentence outline is an extremely important step in these early sessions of summarizing because the task requires the students to paraphrase, which means they must clearly reconstruct the author's meaning. The composing and comprehending link is very close here. A good approach for this method is to take each part of the outline or map and ask the students to take a couple of minutes to write a good sentence which says what the author really meant. Sample sentences from several students could be put on transparencies so the class can see the variety of written solutions. Each student can then pick which of the sentences he thinks best expresses what the author has really said. A sample of student writing about tree lights as a Christmas custom follows:

FIGURE 2

1) Most people used candles on their trees because electric lights were too expensive.

2) In earlier times, the lights that were put on the trees were candles. Later, expensive electric lights came about.

3) People began to brighten their trees with candles. Then, later, the idea of electric lights came to be.

DAY THREE

Have your students complete the sentence outline if they have not already done so for homework. At this point ask your students to turn their sentence outlines into complete paragraphs. There should be little grumbling or frustration as you explain that all they really have to do is recopy their sentence outlines into paragraph form. Editing for verb tense or transition and so on does not have to be taught formally at this point unless you wish to do this. It is also important to make the students aware of how much has gone into the so-called prewriting stages before they even begin to write. They need to see that good prewriting, like the previous activities, makes the actual writing very easy.

Conclusions

This type of summarizing procedure should be tried again in both small groups and in partnerships where the students learn to become more independent about crossing out details and underlining the main ideas. Finally after several of these "group" practice sessions, your students will be willing and able to summarize on their own. Some of the outlining steps will also be able to be done mentally as long as the students remember that reconstructing accurate meaning cannot be done without careful reading.

As an extra bonus for the teacher who does not want or does not need to correct every summary, keep a writing folder for each student. Have them put all their summaries in the folder and when you feel they are at a certain performance level, have them select a piece or two for you to grade.

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If a child is to keep alive his inborn sense of wonder without any such gift from the fairies, he needs the companionship of at least one adult who can share it, rediscovering with him the joy, excitement and mystery of the world we live in.

Rachel Carson

Winners: Everyone

Roslyn Nemke
Cambridge Elementary School
Cambridge, Wisconsin

Rewards. Most people like to be rewarded or recognized for doing something well. We felt that it would be motivating to sponsor a contest in an academic area and offer the type of reward usually granted only to those who have achieved in sports. During the summer of 1983, a contest was developed to promote interest in and to reward children who excel in oral interpretive reading. Here is the definition of interpretive reading we used. Interpretive reading is the art of reading aloud with the printed page before the reader; they should not memorize, but *appear* to be reading. Limited gestures are allowed, but should not become a distraction to the actual reading. Students should read with appropriate expression—including making conversation sound like conversation. Eye contact, poise, posture, volume, the accuracy of pronunciation, and the enunciation of words will also be judged.

Eligibility was limited to one child in each grade. During the first year grades three to six only were eligible. This was expanded in the second year to also include grades one and two. These children would then compete against other schools from the South Kettle Moraine Reading Council area. The workload was divided into: teacher's job; student's job; school's job; and reading council's job. The concept as well as the specific "how-to's" were first explained at the 1983 SKMRC fall meeting.

TEACHER'S JOB: At each grade level, interested teachers had two tasks: (1) choose and make available to students, three or more reading selections, each two to five minutes in length. Selections should offer variety and might include humor, prose, drama, and/or conversation. Basals as well as trade books or magazine stories could be used as selection sources. (2) be a judge (or find a judging volunteer from your school) for the final contest. All volunteers may not be needed, but the contest will not be possible without enough volunteers.

STUDENT'S JOB: Practicing is important to success. Students should be made aware of the judging criteria. Reading rather than memorizing can't be emphasized too often. Teachers and/or parents

are free to offer coaching. Students will also be given a choice of pieces for the extemporaneous portion of the contest to prepare during which time the judges can critique the prepared selections.

SCHOOL'S JOB: Each participating school district helps in these ways:

1. Get your school district's *approval* to participate.
2. Duplicate *Parent Letter* (attached is a copy giving contest specifics so parents are informed).
3. *Arrange a method of selecting* one student per grade level per school.
4. Assume responsibility for *arranging* and, if necessary, financing students' and judges' *transportation*.
5. Select at least one adult to act as *chaperone* for your students. Judges will be too busy to chaperone.
6. Provide *renumeration* for judges and/or mileage to the final contest, if your district desires.
7. Notify the reading council (see attached form).

READING COUNCIL'S JOB: Promotion and advanced planning information to council members is very important so that teachers and districts will have sufficient time to budget for printing materials and arranging transportation. People will be discouraged from participation if adequate time is not allowed.

Establishing a time line is essential. Be sure to require two weeks prior to the final contest for the participating schools to give preliminary notification to the reading council. On the form provided (attached), we requested name and grade of contestant's and name and preference level of judges. This allows time to determine the number of judges, judging rooms, and other facilities and materials needed. If contestants merely "show up" for the final contest, much time will be needed and nervous, excited children and parents may have negative feelings about the contest and the sponsoring organization.

In-building Preparation - One room is needed for each grade level, closed rather than open concept rooms are preferable. Included in each room should be a judges' table and enough seats for contestants and audience. Doors should be labeled to help visitors. A large room is also needed as a gathering place for contestants prior to competition, as well as for the awards ceremony.

Practice rooms for children to work on the extemporaneous selection allows the judges privacy to discuss and tabulate scores.

Beverages and a snack are a nice addition, but an excess of sweet foods would be counter-productive for most children present.

Final Contest Day - Three assemblies/meetings are important. A preliminary judges meeting is needed to discuss the judging form (attached) and answer questions. Most judges appreciate receiving a copy of the judging form in advance so that they can become familiar with the form.

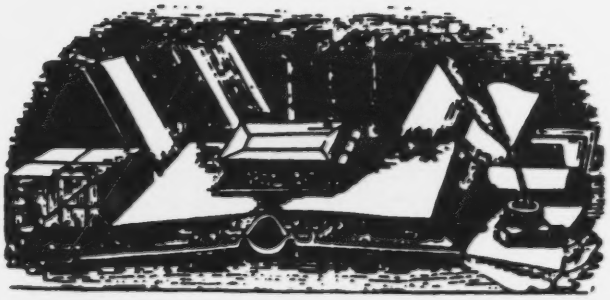
Next should come a welcoming session that includes an

explanation of procedures and an escort to direct students in finding the judging rooms.

An awards ceremony is a nice conclusion to the contest. In our contest, each participant is given a certificate and the top three places are also given medals. Since the number of contestants has tripled in three years, we are considering giving a "first" award to all superior contestants.

Winners: Everyone, at first, seems like a contradiction. Certainly the students who win medals are winners, but so are the other competitors at the final contest and even those who didn't win at their grade level. They tested themselves, worked toward a goal, and hopefully increased their motivation to excel. School and teachers are also winners because the rewards of learning have been made more visible. Parents, too, may feel positive as they see their school faculty extending themselves for children.

Roslyn Nemke teaches 6th grade at Cambridge Elementary School.



SKMRC Newsletter

Date_____

Dear Parents,

The South Kettle Moraine Council is a regional organization of teachers with a special interest in reading. We are sponsoring an Interpretive Reading Contest in which your child may voluntarily participate. The purpose of this contest is to promote an interest in reading in our schools and reward children who are working hard to perfect their reading skills.

By_____ each school will have selected a representative for each participating grade level. These winners will compete against finalists from all other districts at_____A.M. in the _____on _____.

Teachers at your school will chose three grade level appropriate reading selections. Your child is to choose one of the three and then PRACTICE. You may give assistance, guidance, and encouragement to your child.

For you to best help your child, you should know the criteria that will be used to judge contestants. Interpretive reading is the art of reading aloud with the printed page before the reader--no memorizing is necessary. Gestures are allowed, but they should not detract from the actual reading. Your child should read with the appropriate expression (sadness, excitement, etc.) the material dictates; including making conversation sound like conversation. Eye contact, poise, posture, volume, and the correct pronunciation and enunciation of words is also judged.

Please encourage your child to join us in this fun and worthwhile activity.

Sincerely,

___ _____

S.K.M.R.C. President

CONTESTANTS . . . JUDGES . . . ATTENDANTS

Return by _____
Please indicate your representatives below and mail to:

_____

Note: A school can send one child per grade level, but need not have one representative for each level.

SCHOOL'S NAME: _____

CITY: _____

CONTESTANT'S NAME:	Grade level
_____	1
_____	2
_____	3
_____	4
_____	5
_____	6

JUDGE'S NAME:	grade level taught	reference of judging level
1. _____		
2. _____		
3. _____		
4. _____		
5. _____		
6. _____		

NOTE: Volunteers will be notified if their judging services are needed.

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Variety and Flexibility In Basic Sight Word Instruction

Frederick A. Duffelmeyer
Iowa State Univeristy

Johnson and Pearson (1984) have identified three broad categories of words that readers must acquire: high-frequency words, selection-critical words, and old words/new meanings. The first and most elementary category, which is also referred to as **basic sight words**, refers to those words which occur frequently in printed material at all difficulty levels. Fluent reading depends on the instantaneous recognition of basic sight words. A reader who finds it necessary to analyze words in this category each time they occur is severely hampered in terms of comprehending extended text.

Many basic sight words are irregularly spelled, e.g., said, what, do. Therefore, procedures for teaching them generally do not draw attention to phonic generalizations. Instead, the emphasis is on either the whole word or some visual (as opposed to auditory) feature within it. In the process of avoiding sound-related directives or cues, teachers might have a tendency to lapse into nothing more than the standard look-say approach: "This word is _____. Now let's say it together."

As a means of introducing more variety into basic sight word instruction, teachers can turn to several recently developed procedures that go beyond the standard look-say approach. McNinch (1981), for example, recommends the following instructional sequence: (1) teacher modeling in oral context, (2) teacher modeling in written context, (3) teacher-student interaction relative to visual features, (4) oral reading in abbreviated contexts (isolated phrases and sentences), (5) oral reading in extended contexts (paragraphs and stories), and (6) practice in game-like settings.

Johnson and Pearson (1984) incorporate a variety of activities in their five-step procedure labeled seeing, discussing, using, defining, and writing. Multiple teaching/learning activities also characterize the instructional sequences proposed by Cunningham (1980) and Jolly (1981).

Implementation of the aforementioned sequences would accomplish the goal of introducing more variety into basic sight

word instruction. However, it might do so at the expense of instructional overkill. All but one of Johnson and Pearson's sequences are designed with a corrective or remedial audience in mind. Therefore, their "as is" use with developmental readers would normally be inappropriate. However, it seemed to me that these activity-rich instructional sequences could provide the raw material for numerous additional sequences that could be tailored to any audience.

With that purpose in mind, I disassembled each of the four sequences and formed a body, or "pool," of activities. The pool, which is shown in Figure 1, is divided into two sections: "in isolation" activities and "in context" activities. (The activities within each subgroup are numbered for identification purposes only; they should not be viewed as consisting of a sequence.) As indicated earlier, numerous sequences could be generated from the pool. The number, type (isolation vs. context), and order of the activities chosen for a given sequence would be based on both the students' instructional needs and the teacher's philosophy regarding the relative importance of isolation versus context activities.

FIGURE 1 - Pool of activities for basic sight word instruction

Isolation Activities

1. The teacher pronounces the target word while the students look at it.
2. The students pronounce the target word while looking at it.
3. The students copy the word.
4. The students write the target word from memory.
5. The teacher asks the students questions about the target word's visual features.
6. The students scan a series of words for the target word.
7. The students complete the partially spelled target word.

Context Activities

1. The teacher uses the target word in an oral sentence.
2. The students use the target word in an oral sentence.
3. The teacher reads a phrase that contains the target word while the students look at it.
4. The students read a phrase that contains the target word.
5. The teacher reads a sentence that contains the target word while the students follow along.
6. The students read a sentence that contains the target word.
7. The students read a paragraph that contains the target word.
8. The students select, from among several choices, the target word that best completes a sentence.
9. The students supply the target word in a written sentence.
10. The students write a sentence that contains the target word.

The following sequences illustrate the pool's potential for introducing variety and flexibility into basic sight word instruction. The individual activities are coded, and are presented in terms of what the teacher might say to the students and what printed stimuli might be used.

Sequence 1: Isolation Emphasis

I1. "The word that I've just printed on the board is 'there'."

C1. "Listen for the word 'there' in this sentence: The closet is over there."

I3. "Copy the word 'there' on the blank side of the worksheet I gave you."

I2. "Now, look at the word that you just printed. What is it?"

I6. "Turn your worksheet over. Look for the word 'there' and circle it whenever you find it."

there	fun	dog	said
the	we	about	there
this	there	will	ball
their	the	there	their

Sequence 2: Context Emphasis

C5. "Follow along as I read sentence #1 on the board outloud. Listen carefully for the underlined word."

1. There were <u>many</u> children at the park.

C6. "Sentence #2 has the same underlined word. Read sentence #2 silently."

2. We saw <u>many</u> animals at the zoo.

I2. "Look at the underlined word in both sentences. What is the underlined word?"

C5. "Follow along as I read sentence #3. Again, listen for the underlined word."

3. I don't know <u>where</u> my purse is.

C6. "Now read sentence #4 silently."

4. That is <u>where</u> I go to school.

I2. "What is the underlined word in both sentences?"

C7. "The paragraph on this overhead contains both of the underlined words we've worked on. Read the paragraph silently. Then I'll call on someone to read it outloud."

> Jim is going to have fun today. Do you know where he is going? He is going to a ball game. There will be many people at the game.

Sequence 3: Balanced Emphasis

I1. "The circled word that you see on the board is 'from.'"

I2. "Look at the word and say it."

I7. "Keep looking at the word 'from'. In a moment I'm going to erase it." [After erasing word, the teacher prints "fro_" in its place.]

"A letter is missing. Who can fill in the missing letter?" [Repeat this step with other missing letter combinations.]

C5. "Listen to me as I read what it says below the word 'from'."

She walked from the house to the barn.

C6. "Now let's read that sentence together."

C2. "Make up a sentence that has the word 'from' in it. Then I'll call on volunteers to tell us their sentences."

Concluding Remarks

The foregoing instructional sequences serve as examples of how the pool of activities shown in Figure 1 can be used to introduce variety and flexibility into basic sight word instruction. No judgment regarding a preference for a particular type of sequence—isolation emphasis, context emphasis, or balanced emphasis—is intended. That should be a matter of personal choice.

The three examples are by no means exhaustive; the activities listed in the pool can be arranged to form numerous combinations. For that matter, the pool itself is not exhaustive. Teachers can add other activities that they deem worthwhile, thereby increasing the number of possible combinations.

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Does It Make a Difference Whether Mother or Father Reads the Bedtime Story and Whether the Book is Familiar or Unfamiliar?

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Helen M. (Ruth) Hayden
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A very common occurrence in many homes is the reading of the bedtime story. Research supports the significance of this literacy event as an important beginning to the child's emerging competency with reading. Teale (1982) pointed out in his review of research on children's emerging literacy that a definite relationship exists between a child being read to at home and later success with reading. Teale further elaborates that merely reading stories to children is not sufficient. What Teale contends is that the important relationship between emerging literacy and later literacy development is *how* these stories are read– that is, the nature of the interactions that occur between parents and children during the reading.

Until recently, the oral reading of the bedtime story was done primarily by the mother. With the new economic and social changes, however, more and more fathers are now interchanging roles with mothers, and very often fathers will orally read the bedtime stories. Does this role interchange make a difference to children? One of the purposes of this study is to find an answer to this question.

Children often have a repertoire of favorite story books in the home. These books become familiar. Children will want these books read over and over again. Durkin (1966), who has been studying the reading of parents and preschoolers for over 25 years, talks about the important role of patience of parents when reading. New and unfamiliar books, however, are constantly being added to the children's collection at home. While out shopping, father or mother may buy a book for the beginning reader; relatives or friends may give books as gifts. Some children go to the public library to borrow new (unfamiliar) books. These new and unfamiliar books provide another purpose for this research – to determine whether fathers and mothers read familiar and unfamiliar books in the same way.

Do fathers and mothers read stories differently?

The children in this study were all attending kindergarten and ranged in age from 4 years 11 months to 5 years 9 months. They lived in a large urban and surrounding rural area. There were 27 children in all, 11 boys and 16 girls. The parents (20 mothers and 20 fathers) who were selected indicated that they regularly read to their children. Thirteen of the children were read to regularly by the mother and father; while 7 were read to mainly by mothers; and 7 mainly by fathers. The parents and children chose familiar stories. The unfamiliar stories were provided by the researcher. The reading interactions between parents and children were tape recorded.

An analysis of the data showed that mothers and fathers used approximately the same approaches as they read to their children, and the children reacted similarly during the reading regardless of whether the mother or father was the reader. Thus one conclusion of this study is that beginning readers receive similar oral readings whether the oral reader is the mother or father.

Since this story reading is an interactive event, what parents do, to influence the children's performance is as important as what children do to influence parent reading. Difficulty arises when trying to determine who is having the dominant influence, parent or child. One father, for example, was concerned with "covering" the story and demanded that the child not interrupt during the reading. This was the exception, however, and overall similarities betwen mothers' and fathers' reading behaviors may be due to a number of factors.

One factor may be the influence the child has during the reading due to the child's notions regarding reading behavior developed from earlier background experiences. Children exposed to story reading models provided on televised programs may be influenced by how children interact in the televised programs. The children may adopt these televised models of interaction with their mothers and fathers. In many cases the mothers and fathers may just follow the child's example. Another factor may be that mothers and fathers who regularly read to their children have a genuine interest in the story reading as a social activity, and as a result, provide opportunities for the child to interrupt, question, comment, and respond as the story is being read. Finally, many mothers and fathers have been exposed to models of story reading by public and/or school librarians and have modeled their own behavior based on these past experiences.

Do Parents Read Familiar and Unfamiliar Books in the Same Way?

No. In terms of statistical differences, the probability of parents reading familiar and unfamiliar books in the same way is very low ($p < .01$).

When fathers and mothers read familiar books there tends to be a greater degree of involvement with the story. Both provided time to get the child involved in the story through the use of story

predictions. That is, mothers and fathers would read part of a line and let the children complete it. ("And so the big red hen said...no, I won't go"). Since the children already "knew" the story, they provided accurate predictions, and the mothers and fathers responded positively to the predictions. In familiar stories, mothers and fathers also took time to direct attention to aspects of the print – word and letter forms. The children responded by focussing on text and by sharing with their mothers and fathers in completing parts of the reading. Children also made comments about the story being read.

On the other hand, when the story was not familiar to the children, the approaches of mothers and fathers focused on *asking questions* to check attention and comprehension. Children's reading time then was spent on answering their parents' questions. When children were not attending or comprehending, mothers and fathers indicated this to them, and spent some time in trying to *clarify meaning*.

Conclusions and Implications

Children usually have a lot of experience in being read to before formal schooling begins and have acquired various approaches to interacting with books. Fathers and mothers are equally helpful in fostering the development of this familiarity. The approaches that parents use also differ when the story is either familiar or unfamiliar. Both familiar and unfamiliar stories serve different functions. The familiar story provides a context where background knowledge allows greater participation in the actual reading, and attending to words and letters. In this way, children may build up considerable phonic knowledge – the relationship of sounds and symbols. Unfamiliar books, on the other hand, demand more careful attention by both child and parent. Checking comprehension through questioning is continual. Over time, with additional re-readings of the unfamiliar story, a base of background knowledge about the story emerges and can be verbalized by the child.

Are there implications for teachers? Teachers must understand the background knowledge about reading that children generally bring to school. Since home reading for many children constitutes their first and often successful reading experience, teachers can learn from the nature of the interactions and the kinds of approaches parents use. When children come to school, teachers then continue to provide for the reading of familiar and unfamiliar stories.

Both parents and teachers can learn from the children by being sensitive to their needs, their concerns, and the nature of their reading knowledge. Learning from children, of course, requires providing opportunities for their participation in the reading event.

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Joan E. Heimlich and Susan D. Pittelman

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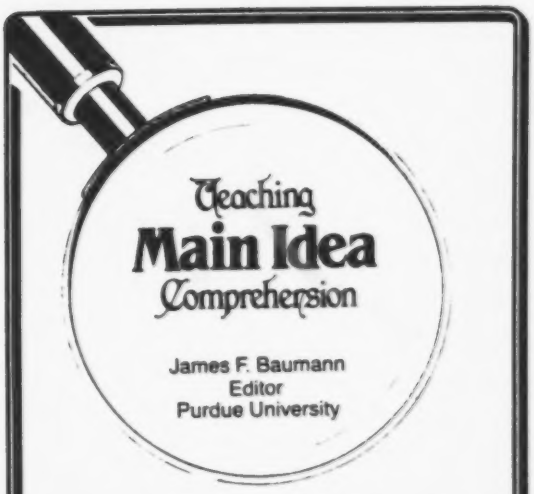

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Integrating the Language Arts

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What does it mean?

Integrating the language arts means providing natural learning situations in which reading, writing, speaking, and listening can be developed together for real purposes and real audiences. It is a counterpart in the elementary school for the "language-across-the-curriculum" movement among high school and college teachers. Because such a high proportion of elementary classrooms are self-contained, with the individual teacher responsible for language arts as well as for most of the rest of the curriculum, the term "integration" seems appropriate to describe elementary school practice.

In the 1960's and 1970's, partly in response to the success of the integrated day curriculum in Great Britain, the claims of the many advocates of language arts integration began to be supported by an increasing body of respected research. During this same period, however, a counter trend developed, namely, an intensification of the conventional "subskills" approach to language arts instruction. In this approach, processes such as reading and writing are segmented into tiny components that are taught and tested as discrete units, discouraging efforts to teach the language arts in a holistic and natural way—to integrate them.

Language arts integration can be considered in three different ways: The most common understanding of integration is learning each of the language arts in terms of the others. Reading is learned through appropriate oral and written activities; writing is learned by attending to reading as a writer would—composing orally, reading drafts to peers, and engaging in related activities; and oral language is learned in the context of rich opportunities for receiving and producing written language. The second concept of integration is implied in the first: each language mode is an integrated whole, not a set of isolated, minute components. Finally, integration may involve the development of language, while learning other content areas, such as social studies, science, or math, as in the "language-across-the-curriculum" model.

What Research Supports Integrated Language Arts Instruction?

Two decades of research in diverse fields have led to new

understanding of a far more complex relationship between thought and language than that characterized by earlier behaviorist models of language and literacy acquisition. For example, John Mellon (1983) notes that children as they begin school have already successfully learned many word-order principles, semantic relationships, sentence-combining tranformations, and lexical feature systems. The fact that this human competence grows as language use for real purposes—without formal coaching, drill, intensive corrective feedback, or direct instruction—suggests that school language programs might best emphasize the use of language in meaningful contexts.

At least three types of research support learning languages though use: first language acquisition, emergent literacy, and effective classroom experiences. Studies of *first language acquisition* of preschoolers demonstrate that children learn to use language not primarily as passive imitators, but as active agents constructing their own coherent views of the world. Children form hypotheses to try them out in natural contexts such as when a four-year-old puts all past tense verbs into a regular pattern (e.g., cutted, eated, goed) even after having previously used the irregular form correctly (cut, ate, went). Many psycholinguists explain such phenomena by positing that infants are born "wired" for seeking meaning and generalizable patterns in their language-saturated milieu. When they discover a pattern, they try to extend it.

Major studies in *emergent literacy* have documented a similar search for pattern and meaning among preschoolers as they begin to pay attention to print. Even as young as two, a child can become aware of the difference between a written story and an oral narrative. Scollen and Scollen (1981) documented their daughter Rachel's transition from an informal oral account of her experiences to her "reading" of her own scribbles as "Once upon a time there was a girl named Rachel..." When children first create scribbles, they expect them to carry meaning, as Marie Clay (1975) notes in her observations of children who, assuming that any adult should be able to read, asked her to "read" what they had "written" (i.e., scribbles). Thus, even before children are literate, they generate hypotheses about how written language is supposed to work. Charles Read's (1971) and Glenda Bissex's (1980) observations of children's development of invented spelling also support the belief that a child learns language in natural contexts for the child's own purposes.

Classroom-based research—longitudinal, ethnographic, case study, and classic control-group comparisons of student performance under various instructional conditions—also supports integration of the language arts. Donald Graves's and Lucy Calkins's case studies of writing show the energizing effect of oral interaction surrounding literacy events. Graves (1983) has convincingly demonstrated that children who are writing instead of going through a basal reader are learning to read at least as well as the other

children and at the same time are learning to write. Numerous other studies (e.g., King and Rentel, 1980; Clay, 1982) demonstrate that development of writing and reading are rooted in oral language.

Teachers have long been aware of the usefulness of oral prereading activities, such as Directed Reading Thinking Activities (DRTA), to generate questions prior to reading. This strategy has helped children learn to predict and thus read more efficiently. Teachers who have participated in Writing Projects have seen how writing can be used as an effective prereading activity, just as reading can be a powerful prewriting tool. Oral language throughout both reading and writing helps children maintain focus and interest. George Hillocks's (1984) meta-analysis of studies that compare strategies in writing instruction also demonstrated the value of integrating the language arts.

Three influential theorists and researchers—Kenneth Goodman (1967), Frank Smith (1983), and James Moffett—have translated into ideas for teaching many psycholinguistic insights into reading, writing, and oral language. In *Student-Centered Language Arts and Reading, K-13*, Moffett and Wagner (1983) remind teachers that "language learning is different from other school subjects. It is not a *new* subject, and it is not even a *subject*. It permeates every part of people's lives and itself constitutes a major way of abstracting. So learning language raises more clearly than other school courses the issue of integration" (p. 38).

How Can the Language Arts Be Integrated?

Learning information *about* some aspect of language is not the same as developing language abilities, nor are drills, exercises, or workbooks a substitute for the acts of listening, speaking, reading, or writing in real communication settings. A good way to integrate the language arts is to focus on something else—the study of flight, or cats, or the water cycle, or energy-giving foods, or Boston in 1773, for example. If the goal is to experience a particular piece of literature, then the teacher should set up different ways of understanding that work through listening, speaking, reading, and writing. For example, James Lincoln Collier's *My Brother Sam Is Dead* can be explored through a drama on the Boston Common in December 1773, involving the class in role-playing, pantomime, and diary writing.

When focusing on something other than language, the teacher needs to provide an environment rich with resources for making language connections. For example, a kindergarten teacher can provide opportunities to see print in context by labeling the objects in the classroom. In the primary grades natural occasions for reading and writing occur with the daily schedule, charts of classroom task monitors, or lists of the names and addresses of the class. The language experience approach to reading integrated the language arts in a way that improves not only reading but writing as

well, because children see the *purpose* of both. Diaries, learning journals, records of observations—all will prepare children for later science lab reports. As they write true and invented stories, using almost anything inside or outside the classroom as a stimulus, they develop language fluency.

Also promoting integrated language learning are small group tasks, such as generating a list of questions for research, responding to first drafts of writing, discussing the meaning of stories or poems, deciding how to prepare a group report, editing one another's work for publication, and planning a readers theatre or other type of rehearsed reading.

School environments for integrated learning must be safe and structured, with ample opportunities for long periods of reading, writing, and carrying on task- or topic-oriented conversations in the classroom. Teachers can serve as models by engaging in all of these activities with their students. Children can learn subskills efficiently within meaningful interactions with others and with print. Their understanding of the language arts become integrated through processes that are themselves wholes rather than fragments.

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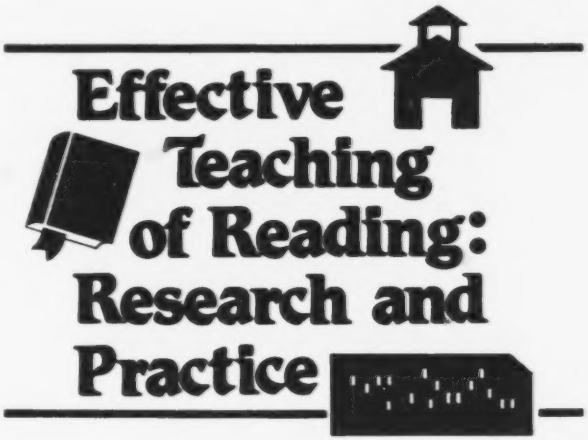

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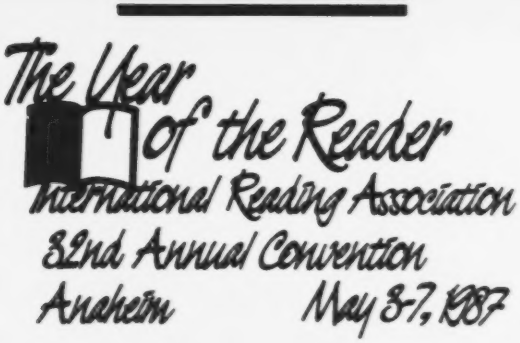

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